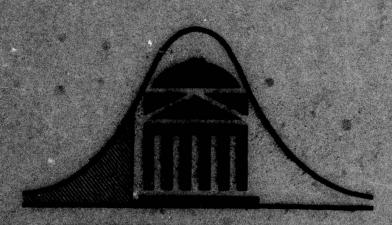


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ONE-SIDED TOLERANCE LIMITS FOR A BROAD CLASS OF LIFETIME DISTRIBUTIONS WITH APPLICATIONS TO DATA OF LIMITED ACCURACY.

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Technical Report No. 135

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One-Sided Tolerance Limits for a Broad Class of Lifetime Distributions with Applications to Data of Limited Accuracy ABSTRACT

Addressed is the problem of determining a one-sided tolerance limit for a population possessing a distribution belonging to a broad class of lifetime distributions. A new implementation of existing general theory is given and contrasted with an earlier utilization of that theory. General guidelines are given for deciding which implementation to use. A method for adjusting for the accuracy of the measuring device is discussed and illustrated with an actual example.

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One-Sided Tolerance Limits for a Broad Class of Lifetime Distributions with Applications to Data of Limited Accuracy

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Introduction

Sometimes a specification of a manufactured product must be stated in terms of an upper or lower tolerance limit for the attribute of the item produced. For example, a manufacturer might state the probability that a certain portion of mechanical components will attain at least a given lifetime. Or a company may claim with a certain confidence that virtually all (stated as a proportion) of its safety devices will trigger before a dangerous condition exists.

The specific theory that is applied to provide this information will depend on what is known about the underlying lifetime density function.

Often, sample data is either scanty or else indicates that it would be unlikely that the assumptions necessary to employ parametric procedures would be valid. In either of these situations it is necessary to turn to distribution-free methods in order to determine the desired tolerance limits.

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However, for a given confidence level γ and content 1-P the traditional non-parametric tolerance limit (see [5], pp. 491-492) obtained from using one of the sample order statistics requires a minimum sample size; and, for any of a multitude of reasons, it may not be possible to obtain this minimum sample size.

Hanson and Koopmans [2] developed a technique for calculating onesided tolerance limits for a broad class of lifetime distributions
(see Appendix A). They also implemented their theory by publishing
tables of factors which can be used to calculate tolerance limits using
two adjacent order statistics. In practice, even though the underlying
distribution is continuous, the measuring instruments yield observations
to only a certain degree of accuracy. This can prove troublesome when
the degree of imprecision is relatively large, especially when tie observations are likely. We investigate the problem of applying the Hanson
and Koopmans results in these cases. As a result of this investigation
another implementation of the theory in [2] which depends on the smallest
and largest order statistics is discussed.

The Hanson and Koopmans Method

The statistic L will be called a lower 1-P content tolerance limit with confidence level γ if the probability is at least γ that at least proportion 1-P of the population falls above L. Upper tolerance limits are defined in the analogous manner. In the discussion to follow it will be assumed that the underlying lifetime distribution is such that either upper or lower tolerance limits may be found using the method of Hanson and Koopmans see (Appendix A). Their lower tolerance limit is

$$L = Y_{k+j+1} - b(Y_{k+j+1} - Y_{k+1})$$
 (1)

while their upper tolerance limit is

$$U = Y_{n-k-1} + b(Y_{n-k} - Y_{n-k-1})$$
 (2)

where Y_m is the m^{th} order statistic from a sample of size n. For a discussion concerning the evaluation of the constant b see Appendix A and and [2]. The tables presented by these authors were for the case j=1 which corresponds to the use of consecutive order statistics in the tolerance limits, usually the two smallest or two largest for lower and upper limits, respectively. The lower tolerance limit using adjacent order statistics and k=0 is

$$L_{H} = Y_{2} - b_{H}(Y_{2} - Y_{1})$$
 (3)

whereas the corresponding upper tolerance limit is

$$U_{H} = Y_{n-1} + b_{H}(Y_{n} - Y_{n-1})$$
 (4)

where bu is tabulated in [2].

We will investigate the application of these tolerance limits in assessing the strength of steel pipe. The strength of steel pipe is measured by the amount of pressure which must be exerted before the pipe collapses. The pressure is increased by increments of 100 pounds until casing collapse occurs. Government specifications have set a catalog minimum for each grade of pipe. If a company is to advertise a pipe as being of a certain grade, then it must be able to show that the pipe will withstand a pressure at least as great as the catalog minimum. The procedure employed is to take a sample of the pipes, usually of size less than 100 from a particular grade because of the expense of testing, and determine whether or not the catalog minimum is above or below the lower tolerance limit with 1-P = .995 and γ = .95. Due to the measuring technique the data is collected only to the nearest 100 pounds and as Table 1 indicates ties occur frequently.

(Table 1 here)

Direct application of (3) yields $L_H = 6000 - b_H(6000-6000) = 6000$. In fact if $Y_1 = Y_2$, then $L_H = Y_2$ regardless of n, P, or γ which is, of course, disturbing. Actually we know only that $5950 \le Y_1 \le Y_2 \le 6050$. A conservative approach would be to consider the worst case situation, i.e. $Y_1 = 5950$ and $Y_2 = 6050$. In this case the limit is given as

 $L_{H}^{''}$ = 6050 - $b_{H}^{'}$ (6050-5950) = 6050 - 28.38 (100)

- 3212.

Upon inspection of the data we see that the 72 test values ranged only from 6000 to 6900 which makes the lower tolerance limit of 3212 seem excessively low. Another approach would be to consider the two pipe pressures which were rounded to 6000 to be uniformly spaced on the interval (5950,6050), i.e. $Y_1 = 5983.33$ and $Y_2 = 6016.67$. Using this approach

L'_H = 6016.67 - 28.38(6016.67 - 5983.33) = 5071

a more intuitively appealing result. However, one might be concerned that the limits obtained using this method would not actually be true 1-P content tolerance limits with at least confidence γ . We will address this problem in the next section.

When using the tabled results of Hanson and Koopmans, the dispersion and location of the distribution is assessed by means of two adjacent order statistics. Intuitively, when the measurements are crude, the information given by successive order statistics concerning the dispersion, is greatly diminished and can be misleading. More appealing limits would deal with non-adjacent order statistics in order to provide a more accurate measure of variability.

In light of these considerations, an intuitively appealing limit would be that for which k=0 and j=n-1, i.e. when the tolerance limit depends on the range. The lower and upper tolerance limits are then respectively

$$L_{R} = Y_{n} - b_{R}(Y_{n} - Y_{1}) \tag{5}$$

and

$$U_{R} = Y_{1} + b_{R} (Y_{n} - Y_{1}). \tag{6}$$

(Table 2 here)

Table 2 presents values of b_R for various values of n, P, and Y. For a discussion of the computations involved in evaluating b_R see Appendix A.

It should be noted that for a given P and Y, the tolerance limits given in (5) and (6) as well as (3) and (4) collapse to the corresponding traditional nonparametric tolerance limits whenever n is greater than or equal to the minimum sample size required for the nonparametric limits to exist. This minimum sample size for each set of parameters in Table 2 is given in parentheses following the last tolerance factor.

Applying (5) to the data of Table 1 and assuming the worst case situation, i.e. $Y_1 = 5950$ and $Y_n = 6950$, we obtain

$$L_R^* = 6950 - b_R(6950 - 5950)$$

= 6950 - 1.658(1000)

- 5292

whereas assuming a uniform spacing yields

$$L'_{R} = 6900 - 1.658(6900-5983.33)$$

= 5380.

In this example the limits based on the range gave lower tolerance limits which were greater than those based on the adjacent order statistics for both methods of dealing with rounded data. In Table 3 tolerance limits

calculated by the methods of this section are presented for eleven grades of pipe which were tested. Of the eleven grades of pipe, the L_R^i limits (Table 3 here)

were greater than the L_H^* limits eight times, and the L_R^* were greater than the L_H^* ten times. Indeed some of the L_H limits are very poor, e.g. grades 3 and 11. These limits are poor whether the worst case method or the uniform spacing method for handling ties is used. Also of interest is the fact that for the limits based on the range, the choice of method made less difference than it did for limits based on adjacent order statistics. It should be noted that for $1 \sim P \approx .995$ and $\gamma = .95$, the standard nonparametric limits do not exist for n < 598 and thus are not applicable here.

Monte Carlo Comparison of Tolerance Limits

In this section Nonte Carlo comparisons of the tolerance limits based on the range and on adjacent order statistics will be discussed. As a first comparison these tolerance limits are compared using "exact" data. In Table 4 the results of these comparisons for the normal, exponential, and chi-square distributions are given. These comparisons were made for various values of P and n. All runs were at the nominal γ = .95 level and the $\hat{\gamma}$ given in the table is the estimate of γ based on 1000 repetitions. The quantities $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ are estimates of the mean and variance of the tolerance limits. The order statistics were generated using the method of Schucany [4].

(Table 4 here)

In order to compare the tolerance limits discussed in this section, a method of comparison needs to be specified. Goodman and Madansky [1] have suggested that one-sided lower (upper) limit A_1 is better than A_2 if $E[A_1-A_2] > 0$ (<0). We will employ this criterion to our situation also.

With this in mind the following observations concerning Table 4 are made:

- (a) L_R and U_R are superior for the normal distribution while U_R is superior for the right tails of the distributions skewed to the right as would be expected. For distributions strongly skewed to the right such as the exponential or chi-square with small degrees of freedom, the L_U limits tended to be superior.
- (b) The superiority of L_R and U_R for the normal distribution and right tails of the skewed distributions is greater for the smaller sample sizes, i.e. when b_H is quite large.
- (c) L_R and U_R are in general less variable than L_H and U_H .
- (d) Although L_R and U_R in general show to be more conservative in the sense that their \hat{Y} 's are larger, this conservatism is often accompanied by superior limits using the Goodman and Madansky criterion. Of course this apparent contradiction occurs because of the lower variability of the L_R and U_R limits.

It should be noted that neither type of tolerance limit performed well for distributions such as the beta and uniform with known and finite support. In fact for these distributions, sample sizes, and parameters employed in Table 4, $\hat{\mu}$ fell outside the support in most cases.

The results of Table 4 indicate that the limits based on the range which were developed to deal with data of limited accuracy are superior in some cases to the limits based on successive order statistics even when data is "exact."

A second Monte Carlo comparison was performed to compare the tolerance limits based on the range and those based on adjacent order statistics when data is of limited accuracy. In Appendix B a formulation of the uniform spacing method of dealing with rounded data is given.

In Table 5 results of the Monte Carlo examination of this method of dealing with rounded data are given. From the table we see that there is close agreement between limits of Table 5 and corresponding limits of Table 4. In addition there were no cases of confidence Y being small enough for us to reject the null hypothesis that $Y \ge .95$ at the .05 level. For these reasons we feel that the uniform spacing method for handling rounded data is a good one and thus that the worst case method is unnecessarily conservative.

(Table 5 here)

Summary

In obtaining tolerance limits, the engineer might use, for example, the procedures outlined in MIL-HDBK-5C (see [3]); and there he is presented with the alternative of using the standard nonparametric procedure if "near normality" cannot be demonstrated. As discussed previously, sample size can be a problem when using the standard nonparametric techniques. For example, an A-basis (P = .01, Y = .95) distribution free tolerance limit requires a sample of size 296. When such a sample size cannot be obtained due to practical considerations, the normality assumption may be invoked out of necessity. In this paper we have applied theory due to Hanson and and Koopmans [2], which is not well known, to present an alterative course of action.

Whereas Hanson and Koopmans applied their theory using adjacent order statistics, we have considered another utilization of that theory which involves the range. Results presented in this paper show that these limits involving the range do have merit. We have compared the two techniques in this paper and have outlined recommendations for their use. The decision between the two utilizations of the Hanson and Koopmans theory may also involve nonstatistical considerations. For example if a lower tolerance limit is desired when items are placed on simultaneous test, then a savings in time will be obtained by forming the limit using the first two order statistics.

When computing the limits, one may also be faced with the problem of tied observations such as those given in Table 1 concerning collapse pressure. A procedure (the uniform spacing method) for handling this situation is presented.

As equations (1) and (2) indicate, the tolerance limits may be based on any combination of order statistics. The main problem is in solving equation (A2). For example, lower tolerance limits based on the first and $\left[\frac{n+1}{2}\right]$ order statistics might prove effective if the parent distribution is skewed to the right.

Appendix A

Summary of Hanson and Koopmans Results

- In [2], Hanson and Koopmans developed the theory which provides the basis for calculation of tolerance limits, for any sample size, in the following two situations:
 - (a) If F is the distribution function, then when log F is concave it is possible to obtain lower tolerance limits. In this case the lower tolerance limit is given by

$$L = Y_{k+j+1} - b(Y_{k+j+1} - Y_{k+1})$$
 (A1)

where Y_{m} denotes the m order statistic and the value of b is such that

$$\pi(b) = \frac{n!}{(n-k-j-1)!(j-1)!k!} \left\{ \int_0^p \int_0^v + \int_p^1 \int_0^{p^{1/b}} v^{(b-1)/b} \right\} w^k (v-w)^{j-1} (1-v)^{n-k-j-1} dw dv$$
(A2)

= γ , whenever $\pi(1) < \gamma$.

When $\pi(1) \geq \gamma$, the value of b is taken to be unity, i.e. $L = Y_{k+1}$.

(b) When log (1-F) is concave, then upper tolerance limits can be calculated. An equivalent condition is that the density function have an increasing hazard rate. In this case the upper tolerance limit is given by

$$U = Y_{n-k-j} + b(Y_{n-k} - Y_{n-k-j})$$
 (A3) where b is as in (A2). As before when $\pi(1) \ge \gamma$, the value of b is taken to be unity, i.e. $U = Y_{n-k}$.

Of course if the underlying lifetime distribution is such that both log F and log (1-F) are concave then either lower or upper tolerance limits may be obtained using the method of Hanson and Koopmans. Indeed those authors pointed out that there is an important class of distributions for which both log F and log (1-F) are concave. Examples of members of this

class are the normal, gamma, beta and Weibull distributions --- either in truncated or original form. Thus the class includes distributions possessing density functions which are quite often employed to describe lifetime situations.

Hanson and Koopmans [2] have tabled the constant b for various values of γ , P, and sample size n for the case in which j=1 in (Al) and (A3). In this case they were able to reduce the double integral in (A2) to a sum of two one-dimensional integrals. In fact they were able to show that in this case, π (b) could be expressed in terms of the gamma function and the incomplete beta distribution function which enabled existing computer routines to be used in the evaluation of b.

In the present paper we investigate the evaluation of $\pi(b)$ when j=n-1. In this case (A2) reduces to the one dimensional integral

$$\pi(b) = 1 - n \int_{p}^{1} v^{n-1} \left[1 - \left(\frac{p}{v}\right)^{1/b}\right]^{n-1} dv.$$
 (A4)

The integration involved in evaluating

$$g(b) = \pi(b) - \gamma \tag{A5}$$

in this case was performed with 20 point Gauss-Legendre quadrature and roots of (A5) were approximated by the method of false position. Checks were made for various values of the parameters using a series solution to the integral in (A4) in lieu of employing Gaussian quadrature. At least five decimal place agreement was observed in all cases checked. All calculations were performed on the CDC Cyber 72 computer. Values of b in this case with j = n - 1 are presented in Table 2 for various values of γ , p, and n.

Appendix B

Uniform Spacing Method of Calculating Tolerance Limits when Data is of Limited Accuracy

Suppose that lower tolerance limits are desired for a continuous theoretical lifetime distribution for which the limited accuracy of the measuring device has resulted in the observed order statistics \mathbf{z}_1 , ..., \mathbf{z}_n , whereas had the measurements been "perfect" the order statistics would have been \mathbf{y}_1 , ..., \mathbf{y}_n , respectively. Assuming that the only measurement errors made are those due to round-off, then if the measuring device is accurate to the nearest \mathbf{r} , it is known only that for any \mathbf{m} , $\mathbf{z}_n - \frac{\mathbf{r}}{2}$ $\leq \mathbf{y}_m \leq \mathbf{z}_m + \frac{\mathbf{r}}{2}$. Of course \mathbf{r} is always present to some degree when measurements are being made on continuous variables. Application of the Hanson and Koopmans method would yield as the lower tolerance limit

$$L_z = z_{k+j+1} - b(z_{k+j+1} - z_{k+1}).$$
 (B1)

The theoretical limit is given by

$$L = Y_{k+j+1} - b(Y_{k+j+1} - Y_{k+1})$$
 (B2)

which may vary from L in (B1) by as much at i (b-.5)r.

Assume that the order statistics $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_n$ have been observed, and let $\mathbf{w}_1 = \mathbf{z}_1$. Suppose further that because of the imprecision of the measuring device, the only possible observable values for $\mathbf{z}_2, \mathbf{z}_3, \dots, \mathbf{z}_n$ are $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_1 + \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_2 + \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{w}_3$, etc. Now suppose that \mathbf{n}_1 of the \mathbf{z}_1 's are equal to $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{n}_2$ equal to \mathbf{w}_2, \dots , and \mathbf{n}_k equal to $\mathbf{w}_k = \mathbf{z}_n$. We have two cases for approximating \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 :

(1) Suppose $\mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{w}_1$, i.e. $\mathbf{n}_1 \geq 2$. Then our approximations of the unknown \mathbf{y}_1 and \mathbf{y}_2 are given by $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_1$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_2$, the expected values of the first two ordered uniform variables over $(\mathbf{z}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{r}}{2}, \ \mathbf{z}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{r}}{2})$ in a sample size of \mathbf{n}_1 i.e. $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_1 = \mathbf{z}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{r}}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{n}_1 + 1}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{y}}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{n}_1 + 1}$.

(2) Suppose $n_1 = 1$ (assume $n_2 > 0$). Then following the same reasoning, \hat{y}_1 is the expected value of the first ordered uniform over $(z_1 - \frac{r}{2}, z_1 + \frac{r}{2})$ in a sample of size 1, i.e. $\hat{y}_1 = z_1$. Likewise, \hat{y}_2 is the first ordered uniform over $(z_2 - \frac{r}{2}, z_2 + \frac{r}{2})$ in a sample of size n_2 , i.e. $\hat{y}_2 = z_2 - \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{n_2 + 1}$.

Approximations of y_n and y_{n-1} are obtained in a similar manner. Using these approximations, observed values of the tolerance limits L_H^i , U_H^i , L_R^i , and U_R^i corresponding to (3),(4),(5),and (6) respectively are obtained by substituting \hat{y}_1 , \hat{y}_2 , \hat{y}_{n-1} , and \hat{y}_n for y_1 , y_2 , y_{n-1} , and y_n respectively.

Of course distributions other than the uniform could be considered over the intervals $(z_i - \frac{r}{2}, z_i + \frac{r}{2})$ but the authors feel that this additional sophistication in the technique would add no meaningful improvement.

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Table 1 Collapse Pressures for a Sample of
Pipes--Grade 1

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Pressure	Frequency
6000	2
6100	6
6200	18
6300	corpena 7
6400	12
6500	6
6600	9
6700	5
6800	6
6900	1 72

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		.99	n	.95	.99
n	.95	The state of the s		P	.05
		179.79060	2	48.63158	248.39916
3	35.17691			10.57547	75.44] 04
	7.65870	19.92398	4	6.00391	11.39610
4	4.50521	9.55170	5	4.3A315	7.39232
5	3.30616	5.58036			5.59617
6	2.69502	4.23786		3.54125	2.4901
7	2.32317	3.48252	7	3.06293	4.58871
A	2.07176	2.49948		2.72681	3.04504
9	1.88932	2.66374	•	2.44356	3.49906
10	1.75034	2.41636	16	2.29852	3.17184
1	1.64046	5.55610	i i	2.15243	2.91978
2	1.55110	2.07488	iz	2.03377	2.71965
3	1.47677	1.95154	13	1.9351P	2.55656
4	1.41381	1.84883	14	1.45174	2.42085
5	1.35966	1.76180	15	1.78005	
6	1.31251	1.5A700	16	1.71767	2.30595
17	1.27100	1.62193	17	1.66278	
A	1.23412	1.56472	18	1.61405	2.12143
19	1.20108	1.51397	19	1.57042	2.04602
20	1.17128	1.46859	20	1.53108	1.91940
1	1.14423	1.42773	21	1.49539	1.86560
>>	1.11954	1.39071	22	1.46283	1.81449
>3	1.09688	1-35698		1.43298	1.77251
24	1.07601	1.32610	23		
25	1.05670	1.29770		1.40548	1.73190
26	1.03877	1.27148	25	1.38004	1.69456
~	1.038//	105/140	26	1.35643	1.66009
77	1.02207	1.24717	>7	1.33444	1.62815
28	1.00645	1.22456	24	1.31389	1.59845
29	(29)	1.20347	20	1.29464	1.57075
70		1.18374	30	1.27655	1.54484
31		1.16523	71	1.25952	1.52054
77		1-14783	92	1.24345	1.49770
33		1.13142	23	1.22824	1.47517
74		1.11543	34	1.21383	1.45583
35		1.10126	75	1.20015	1.43459
36		1.0A736	36	1.18714	1-41436
17		1.07415	37	1.17474	1.40104
28		1.06159	78	1.16295	1.39454
30		1.04962	30	1.15162	1.36987
40		1.03820	40	1.14081	1.35389
41		1.0272A	41	1.13046	1.33959
42		1.01684			
43		1.00684	· ·		,
		(44)			

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TABLE 2--Continued

	<u>Y</u>				
n	.95	.99	<u>n</u>	.95	.99
	P	05		р.	.01
2	1.12053	1.32590	5	80.60380	404.4356
	1.11100	1.31279	3	16.91220	40.4500
4	1.10184	1.30022	4	9.49579	17.0930
5	1.09303	1.28816	. 5	6.89049	11.4179
•	1.08454	1.27656	. 5	5-57681	8.7581
.7	1-07636	1.26541	7	4.78352	7.1626
R	1.06646	1.25467	A	4.55011	6.1474
9	1.66084	1.24432	9	3.86502	5.4445
50	1.0534R	1.23434	10	3.57267	4.9283
52	1-03946	1.21540	11	3.34227	4,5323
4	1.02631	1.19768	15	3-15540	
6	1.01394	1.19108	13	3.00033	•.7]#3
A	1.0022A	1.16548	14	45698.5	3.9626
.0		1.15077	15	2.75672	3.7501
2	(59)	1.13689	16		3.5703
	(29)		• •	5.45880	3.4160
44		1.12375	17	2.57290	3.5819
46		1.11150	18	2.49660	3.1642
AA		1.09944	19	2.42833	3.0598
70		1.08820	20	2.36683	2.9666
.5		1.07747	21	2.31106	2.8827
74		1.04723	55	5.54050	2.8068
76		1.05744	23	2.21359	2.7377
78		1.04807	24	2-17067	2.6745
AC OR		1.03909	25	2.13100	2.6163
45		1-03047	26	2.09419	2.5627
94		08880-1	27	2.05991	2.5130
96		1.01424	28	2.02790	2.4668
QA.		1.00658	20	1.99741	2.4238
		(90)	30	1 . 96975	2.3835
			31	1.04324	2.3457
			32	1.91822	2,3102
			33	1.89457	2.2768
			34	1.87215	2.2452
			35	1.85088	2,2153
			36	1-83065	2.1A70
			37	1-81139	2.1,01
			38	1.79301	2,1346
			30	1.77546	2 1102
				1.75868	2.1102
			•1		2.0870
			-1	1.74260	2.0648

THIS PAGE IS BEST QUALITY PRACTICABLE TABLE 2 -- Continued COPY PARMISHED TO DOC

n	.95	.99	n	.95	.99
	р.	.01		Р.	.01
2	1.72718	2.04363	135	1.20620	1.3571
3	1.71239	2,02331	140	1,19491	1,3429
	1-69817	2,00382	145	1,18421	1.3295
5	1.68449	1.99512	150	1.17406	1.3168
5	1.67132	1.96715	155	1.16440	1.3047
7	1.65862	1.94986	160	1.15519	1,2932
A	1.64638	1.93322	165	1.14640	1.2825
9	1.63456	1.91719	170	1.13801	1.2718
0	1.62313	1.90172	175	1,12997	1.2618
5	1.60130	1.87238	180	1.12226	1,2522
•	1.58101	1.84495	185	1,11486	1,2431
6	1.56184	1.81924	190	1.10776	1,2343
	1.54377	1.79509	195	1.10002	1,2258
0	1.52670	1.77233	500	1.09434	1.2177
?	1,51053	1.75084	205	1.08799	1.2099
4	1.49520	1.73051	510	1.08187	1.2023
5	1.48063	1.71124	215	1.07595	1,1950
R	1.46675	1.69293	220	1,07024	1.1880
0	1.45352	1.67552	225	1.06471	1.1812
2	1.44089	1.65842	230	1.05935	1.1747
•	1.42881	1.64300	235	1.05417	1,1683
6	1.41724	1.62795	240	1.04914	1.1622
A	1.40614	1.61347	245	1.04426	1,1562
0	1.39549	1,59959	250	1.03952	1.1504
2	1.38525	1.58627	275	1.01773	1,1238
4	1.37541	1.57348	300	(299)	1,1006
6	1.36592	1.56119	325		1.0801
	1.35678	1.54936	350		1.0617
Ó	1.34796	1.53796	375		1.0452
5	1,33944	1.52696	400		1,0302
			425		1,0165
4	1,33120	1,51635	450		1.0039
6	1.32324	1,50611			
8	1,31553	1.49620			(459)
0	1,30806	1.48662			
5	1.20036	1.46396			
0	1,27392	1.44297			
5	1.25859	1,42346			
20	1,24425	1.40526			
5	1,23080	1.38822			
ñ	1,21814	1.37223			

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TABLE 2 -- Continued

	Y			<u> </u>	
n	.95	.99	<u>n</u>	.95	.99
	7 -	.005		р.	.005
2	93.52083	477.40521	45	1.98847	2,35276
3	19.64593	47.2146R	43	1.07140	5.3293
4	11.0017A	80.84466	• • •	1.95500	2.30686
5	7.97155	13.43315	45	1.93923	2,2953
6	6.44564	10.12147	•6	1.05404	2.2645
7	5-52508	H. 27225	47	1.90940	2,7446
	4.90656	7.09637	40	1.89528	2,2254
9	4.46029	4.28266	49	1.48165	2.2069
0	4.12166	5.68528	50	1.86848	2,1891
1	3.85491	5.22720	52	1,84342	2.1553
5	3,63862	4.86405	54	1.81991	2.1237
3	3.45920	4.56852	56	1.79781	2.0941
4	3,30757	4.32288	58	1.77699	5.0665
15	3,17745	4.11513	60	1.75731	2.0400
16	3.06435	3.93684	65	1.73868	2.0152
7	2.46495	3.78194	64	1,72100	1,9918
	2.A7676	3.64594	66	1.70421	1.9696
8	2.79788	3.52543	9.0	1.68855	1.9485
	2.726MS	3.41779	70	1.67297	1.9284
5.1	2.66239	3,32096	15	1.65841	1.0093
22	2.60365	3.23331	74	1.64440	1.8911
23	2.54982	3,15353	76	1,63115	1.8736
24	2.50026	3.08054	78	1.61637	1.8569
25	2.45446	3,01346	80	1.60610	1.8409
26	2.41196	2.95155	95	1.59430	1.A256
27	2,37230	2.49422	84	1.58205	1.8100
20	2.33543	2,0002	86	1.57203	1.7967
65	2,30082	2.79123	98	1.56149	1.7831
30	5.26835	2.74477	90	1,55133	1.7699
31	2.23772	2.70121	45	1,54151	1.7573
32	2.20886	95099.3	94	1.53203	1.7451
33	2.18156	5.45160	96	1.52592	1:7333
34	2.15570	2.58527	. 98	1.51307	1.7218
35	2,13115	5.55085	100	1.50537	1.7108
36	2.10782	2.51817	105	1.48498	1.6847
37	2.08559	2.48716	110	1.46604	1.6605
30	2.06440	2.45768	115	1.44838	1.6381
30	2.04415	2.42960	150	1,43187	1.6171
40	2,02479	S8504.5	125	1.41637	1.5075
41	2.00625	2,37723	130	1.40179	1.5701

TABLE 2 -- Continued

	65 203 S 5 Y	statist and tests) was		où in a		Y	
n	.95	.99	n		.95	.9	9
	P =	.005			P	005	
35	1.38804	1.56178	675			1.0	4141
45	1.37504	1.54542	700				6161
50	1.36272	1.52996	725				4666
55	1,33990	1.51530	750				3972
	.,,5544.	50139	775				3309
60	1.32930	1.48815	10000				
65	1.31918	1.47554	800				2675
70	1,30951	1.46350	825 850				2068
75	1,30025	1.45200	875				1486
80	1.20136	1.44099	900				0927
85	1,29286	1,43043	700				919)
90	1.27468	1.42031					3731
95	1.26681	1.41058					
00	1.25923	1,40122					
05	1.25192	1.39221					
10		1					
is	1.24487	1.38353					
20	1.23806	1.37515					
25	1.22511	1.35925					
30	1.21895	1.35725					
		1.32104					
235	1.21298	1.34437					
240	1.20710	1.33728					
245	1,20157	1.33041					
250	1,19611	1.32375					
275	1,17103	1.29318					
300	1.14002	1.2000					
325	1,12940	1.26646					
350	1,11100	1.24282					
375	1.09617	1.505eb					
•00	1.08177	1-18540					
445	1.06858	1.16961					
450	1.05644	1.15510					
475 500	1.04520	1-14170					
525	1.03476	1-12927					
		1-11769					
550	1.01589	1-10687					
575	1.00733	1-09672					
600	(598)	1-0871R					
625		1.07818					
650		1.06967					

Table 3 Comparison of Lower Tolerance Limits with 1-P = .995 and γ = .95 for Various Grades of Pipe

GRADE	<u>n</u>	L'H	L'R	T."	L"R	<u>z</u> 1	<u>z</u>	z _n
1	72	5071	5 380	3212	5292	6000	6000	6900
2	83	6035	7324	3094	7225	8100	8200	9400
3	54	-6770	7404	-9994	7272	9700	10200	12500
4	79	4932	6398	2314	6287	7500	7600	9300
5	58	8903	7795	6810	7697	10000	10000	12800
6	51	11256	8346	8969	8241	12400	12400	17100
7	54	9252	12028	5928	11896	15600	16000	20400
8	57	3782	3768	1378	3684	4600	4600	5600
9	99	4179	5239	1428	5138	5800	5900	6900
10	84	5353	6526	2438	6417	7400	7500	8900
11	51	-3743	4859	-7174	4724	6400	6700	8200

Table 4 - Monte Carlo Results Normal (0,1), $\gamma = .95$, 1000 repetitions

.90	.90	.95	.95	.95	.99	.99	1-9	.90	.90	. 95	.95	.95	.99	.99	1-P
25	10	50	25	10	100	50	9	25	10	50	25	10	100	50	5
0.16	- 0.94	0.06	- 0.23	- 2.15	04	42	E,	- 2.22	- 6.59	_ 2.54	- 4.85	-12.37	- 4:15	-10.85	Ε,
.001	.035	.001	.009	.069	.002	.014	a ; E	.021	.151	.021	.094	. 323	.059	.264	٦٣. ٥
.955	.976	.959	.967	.965	.942	.968	Α, EM	.957	.961	.947	.950	.951	.908	.962	٠,
-0.18	-2.03	-0.22	-1.41	-3.60	-1.58	-2.78	Exponential p	-2.20	-3.89	-2.50	-3.45	-5.55	-4.02	-5.06	F,
.003	.029	.002	.015	.053	.012	.025	, L. J	910.	.034	.016	.023	.047	.017	.026	a, "t
.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	95, 1	.981	.998	.976	.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	4 ,
4.44	11.92	5.14	10.86	23.07	10.15	25.75	1000 repetitions	2.24	6.35	2.54	4.91	12.61	4.28	10.40	Ξ,
.058	. 313	.057	.249	. 700	.184	.694	etitions UH	.022	.138	.022	.092	. 313	.064	. 254	o H
.955	.945	.955	.952	.931	.926	.955	₹,	.955	.950	.951	.960	.957	.918	.946	₹,
4.09	5.06	4.69	5.31	6.64	6.75	7.32	E ,	2.21	3.85	2.50	3.46	5.56	4.05	5.04	Ε,
.045	.067	.040	.055	.093	.051	.066	a ža	.017	.034	.016	.022	.047	.018	.026	Q ig
.956	.955	.953	.961	.950	.957	.948	۲,	.974	.997	.973	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	,

Table 4 - Continued

Chi-Square (5), γ = .95, 1000 repetitions

.90	.90	.95	.95	.95	.99	.99	1-P
25	10	50	25	10	100	50	5
0.67	- 5.54	0.48	- 1.96	-14.10	- 0.62	- 5.89	Ε,
.017	.190	.013	.084	.420	.033	.175	d , ^E t.
.958	.964	.941	.961	.978	.931	.964	≺ ,
0.21	- 5.55	- 0.64	- 3.68	-10.76	- 4.43	- 8.21	Ε,
.016	.080	.012	.042	.135	.031	.064	۵, مر
.993	1.000	.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	۲,
14.70	33.80	16.57	30.29	63.22	28.78	70.89	Ε,
.143	.768	.155	.625	1.610	.471	1.767	d , =c
.943	.950	.942	.954	.946	.924	.955	۲,
13.94	17.62	15.55	17.65	22.93	21.40	23.81	Ε,
.110	.173	.109	.138	.226	.128	.161	d , ² C
.954	.978	.953	.973	.987	.990	.992	۷,

Table 5 - Tolerance Limits with Rounded Data $\left(r = \frac{STD DEV}{2}\right)$ Normal (0,1) , $\gamma = .95$, 1000 repetitions

.90	.90	.95	. 95	.95	.99	.99	1-P		.90	.90	.95	. 95	.95	.99	.99	1-b	
25	10	50	25	10	100	50	5		25	10	50	25	10	100	30	9	
0.0	- 1.0	0.0	- 0.3	- 2.3	- 0.0	- 0.5	T	Exponential L'H	- 2.2	- 6.8	- 2.6	- 5.1	-13.1	- 4.5	-10.8	Ε,	"t-
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	7	ntial (1)	.99	.99	.97	1.00	1.00	.98	1.00	۷,	-
-0.2	-2.0	-0.2	-1.4	-3.6	-1.6	-2.8	Ε	٠, ۲	-2.2	-3.9	-2.5	-3.5	-5.7	-4.2	-5.1	Ε,	
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	7	.95, 1	.99	1.00	.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	۷,	אר-
4.4	12.3	5.5	10.5	23.3	10.4	26.2	E	000 re	2.3	6.4	2.6	5.0	12.7	4.3	10.9	= ,	
.97	.99	.94	.98	.99	.95	1.00	4	1000 repetitions	.99	1.00	.97	.99	1.00	.97	1.00	₹,	H.
4.0	5.2	4.9	5.2	6.6	6.9	7.3	τ		2.3	3.9	2.5	3.5	5.7	4.1	5.2	Ε,	
.97	.94	.95	.97	.94	.95	.95	7	» ⁻	.99	1.00	.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	۲,	R ^U

Chi-Square (5) , γ = .95, 1000 repetitions

Table 5 - Continued

	1-p		.99	.99	.95	.95	. 95	.90	.90
	5	H	50	100	10	25	50	10	25
	Ε,	0.3	- 6.0	- 0.9	-15.8	- 2.6	0.2	- 6.4	0.4
H.	₹,	9	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.97
	Ε,		- 8.6	- 4.8	-11.1	- 4.0	- 0.4	- 6.0	0.0
R-	۲,		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	. 99
-	Ε,		67.0	29.0	66.7	29.7	16.6	35.1	14.4
H.	۲,		1.00	.94	1.00	.99	.99	.99	. 98
U.	Ε,		23.9	21.8	23.0	17.8	15.7	18.2	.98 13.7
zı -	≺,		. 99	.99	.99	.99	.97	.99	. 98

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Tolerance limits, distribution free, increasing hazard rate

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Addressed is the problem of determining a one-sided tolerance limit for a population possessing a distribution belonging to a broad class of lifetime distributions. A new implementation of existing general theory is given and contrasted with an earlier utilization of that theory. General guidelines are given for deciding which implementation to use. A method for adjusting for the accuracy of the measuring device is discussed and illustrated with an actual example.